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PREFACE

Southern Illinois University was established in 1869 as a two-year normal school. In 1907, it became a four-year, degree-granting institution, though continuing as a normal school. In 1943, the state legislature recognized the great need for diversified training and raised the status of the institution to a normal university. Further recognition of this need was officially acknowledged by the state legislature in 1947, when the institution was given its present name and designated as a general university.

The University is located in that portion of the state which is in the transitional stages of converting from an economy based on coal mining to an economy based on fruit farming and light industry. This change of economy has created many sociological problems for which the University, under the leadership of President Delyte W. Morris, has assumed major responsibility in finding solutions.

Among the more serious sociological problems created by this transition was the effect it had on the public school systems in this portion of the state and the children entrusted to their instructional care. The College of Education was considered to be the logical agency of the University to cope with problems of this nature. Douglas E. Lawson, Dean of the College of Education, recommended that those responsible for the scientific aspects of the educational process be given departmental status within the college. Although the original plans were to follow the traditional pattern of naming this department Educational Psychology, the university administrative officials broke with tradition to emphasize the pressing needs in the two areas dealing most directly with school children by creating the Department of Guidance and Special Education in 1949.

Under the chairmanship of Dr. Marshall S. Hiskey this department met the needs of the area through training programs for guidance

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workers and teachers of special programs in many of the school systems. Close cooperation was established and maintained with the Child Guidance Clinic, cooperation was established and maintained with the Child Guidance Clinic, an agency of the University founded in 1936 and still directed by Dr. W. A. Thalman.

Dean John E. Grinnell, who assumed leadership for the College of Education in 1955, recommended that, in view of the resignation of Dr. Hiskey to accept a position with the University of Nebraska, that two departments be created to replace the Department of Guidance and Special Education. This recommendation was implemented by the university authorities in 1956 by the creation of the Department of Special Education under the chairmanship of Dr. Oliver P. Kolstoe, and the Department of Guidance under the chairmanship of the writer. The Department of Guidance was assigned the responsibility to continue the offering of those courses traditionally taught by departments of Educational Psychology while maintaining its emphasis on the training of guidance personnel. Close cooperation was established and maintained with the Child Guidance Clinic.

EUGENE D. FITZPATRICK

SOME SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL ORIENTATION PROGRAM

Arthur Smith and Jane Josse

Whenever an abrupt change in the educational system occurs, teachers notice that many students experience concomitant periods of stress and strain. These periods, characterized by "problem children," increased dropout rates, daydreaming, and rowdiness, have prompted educators to search for causes and to suggest procedures and techniques designed to lessen for the student the uncertainty of the transition periods.

The increments in the ladder system of education vary from state to state and have, for the most part, been determined by administrative convenience. In general, one may note three distinct changes for the child. The first one takes place when the youngster has his first experience with formal education and may occur at nursery, kindergarten or first grade. The second one takes place when the transition is made from elementary school to secondary school. This usually occurs between the sixth and ninth grades. In some cases this change is made twice, from elementary to junior high school and from junior high school to senior high school. The third major educational change occurs in the twelfth grade between high school graduation and college enrollment, advanced training or employment.

It is the purpose of this paper to point up some of the problems brought about by these transition periods, to note the consequences of our failure to recognize these transition points as periods of group change, and to suggest certain techniques to assist in the socialization function performed by the group. Let us limit this discussion to the transition period between elementary and secondary school and, for the sake of simplicity, consider this as taking place between eighth and ninth grade.

Educators have been sensitive to the trials of the beginning student during these transition periods. Emil Soskind, from a high school in Los Angeles, writes:

It was obvious to the administrators, the teachers, and even the upper grade pupils. The (new) pupil was not behaving and reacting as a well-adjusted, integrated segment of the high school community. . . . And yet most of the . . . pupils could still remember their old, lower grade schools, elementary or junior high where they had been the Brahmin Caste, most respected and most adequately adjusted to the school situation.¹

¹ Soskind, Emil, "Problem in Orientation," *High Points*, 30, 1948, p. 74.

Kessler, concerned about evidences of stress among vocational high school freshmen, writes:

There is a look of troubled surprise in the faces of the new ninth year students who come to the vocational high school on the first day of the term as they listen to the guidance counselor's orientation talk on the ninth year curriculum. Perhaps it is more accurate to say that the surprise in the youthful countenances runs the gamut from mild consternation to budding pride and hope.²

These and countless other cues indicate that the student in the transition period is trying to cope with a new, and perhaps confusing, situation.

In an attempt to make this transition period as smooth as possible, a variety of techniques and activities have been included in the school orientation program. What are the purposes of these techniques and activities? Polka and Armitage, writing about an orientation program in a Chicago high school, indicate what it should accomplish.

Today, our high schools have become huge unwieldy institutions. Those who enter them must be made to feel welcome or they will remain strangers to the rules and regulations necessary for survival in large organizations. The program of orientation outlined in this article is a sure manifestation of that welcome, because it helps the student to understand both the school and himself.³

Kessler states:

It is essential to remember that the youngsters need a program of orientation to bridge the gap between the lower schools, where they led a 'sheltered' life, and the high school, which represents a strange and complex environment. . . . In brief, the primary purpose of the orientation program in the ninth year is to help students to find themselves and to appreciate the opportunities offered by the school and the environment for their development.⁴

W. J. Coy writes this about the program at Maplewood-Richmond Heights High School:

² Kessler, H. L., "Orientation in the ninth year," *High Points*, 29, 1947, pp. 72-73.

³ Polka, A., and Armitage, F., "Freshman Orientation," *Chicago School Journal*, 28: 1947, p. 78.

⁴ Kessler, *op. cit.*, pp. 73-74.

We felt keenly the need for such a program designed to give definite instruction in purposes of high school, study habits training, and understanding of the future of their high school careers.⁵

Two educational psychologists from Minnesota write:

Orientation serves at least two useful purposes: (1) To acquaint the new pupil with the school, and (2) To acquaint the school with the new pupil.⁶

Michelman sums up the purposes of orientation program when he says:

Orientation is primarily concerned with aiding new pupils or transfer pupils in effectively entering upon and becoming adjusted to the customs, environment, and work of the school.⁷

To accomplish these objectives, new techniques and activities have emerged in the school program. Rules and regulations, membership in clubs, co-curricular activities, and rules of attendance are explained during orientation assemblies. Student handbooks, containing similar information in addition to school songs and traditions, are distributed to beginning freshmen. Extensive testing programs are utilized in some schools. Visiting days may be arranged on a two-way process. Big brother and sister techniques are used in some schools with considerable success. Some schools incorporate orientation units into a regular course required of all freshmen. Most of the above activities seem to emphasize providing information about the new school and gathering information about the new student. All of them attempt to accomplish the objective of bridging the gap between the two schools.

Many programs are unsuccessful or incomplete because they seemingly fail to recognize one of the fundamental problems created by the transition period. Student behavior itself provides the clues. Freshman "hazing" is familiar to most high school students and has persisted in spite of administrative efforts to curtail this practice. Freshman initiation is still quite common on the college level and is quite severe in some fraternities. These rites or activities are designed

⁵ Coy, W. J., "Off to a good start," *School and Community*, 27: 1951, p. 281.

⁶ Dugan, W. E., and Wrenn, C. G., "What do we do for the new students," *Minnesota Journal of Education*, 29: 1949, p. 31.

⁷ Michelman, C. A., *Handbook for Providing Guidance Services*, Springfield: State of Illinois, Board for Vocational Education, 1949, p. 84.

to announce the formal entry of a student into a new group. Here, then, lies the key to the tensions and conflicts manifested by the neophyte. It is the belief of the authors that the rationale of any orientation program must be based on the fact that the new student is changing groups. Failure to base technique and activities designed to ease this transition period on sound social-psychological principles may actually hinder the development of many students.

A group, as defined by Newcomb, "... consists of two or more persons who share norms about certain things with one another and whose social roles are closely interlocking."⁸ An eighth grade student is a member of many groups, one of which is his eighth grade class. Among the norms shared by this group are certain ways in which high school is perceived. An eighth grade student is also a member of a family who hold a set of norms about high school, especially if a member of that family already attends or has attended high school. He may share a set of norms with the gang or clique of which he is a member. The norms of the primary groups will, to a considerable extent, determine the kinds of attitudes he may have about high school. These attitudes will be developed by the elementary teacher who warns, "You can't get away with that nonsense in high school." The students of this teacher may perceive high school as a place for hard work and perhaps a place for fear. A father who says, "Those high school kids do nothing but play basketball," is helping to develop his son's attitude toward the new school. If sister brings home books frequently and spends long hours studying, the beginning freshman may perceive high school as a place which demands long hours of studying. All of these norms concerning high school may contain a good deal of misinformation and perhaps some distorted perceptions.

The first step then, in any effective orientation program, must involve an attempt to ascertain the norms the new student already holds about high school. Efforts must be made to correct the distortions and to clarify in a positive sense the vague ideas that are held concerning school and the behaviors expected from a member of the student body. A long range program must convince elementary school teachers of their importance and influence in helping students develop frames of reference and group norms that serve to heighten interest and create pleasurable anticipation for this period of transition.

Family norms also affect the behavior of the beginning high school student. Such comments as, "You can have dates when you start high school," imply that parents view high school students as

⁸ Newcomb, T. M., *Social Psychology*, New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1950, p. 492.

socially mature. If the father perceives school as "taking my son away from the work he ought to be doing," the son may hold similar attitudes. The parents who dismiss disciplinary action by the school as humorous because they did similar things years ago, create attitudes about high school that may persist despite all efforts to change them. Long range orientation programs must then try to build adequate and useful frames of reference for parents. The new experiences should be dramatized by the parents as a big step in the process of growing up. The child will then seek to accept his changing roles and strive for greater maturity.

Obtaining information which reveals the beginning student's ideas about high school is the first step in explaining the curriculum. If communication is to be effective, explanations must be phrased in terms the student already understands. Algebra, English, and general science courses may mean little or nothing to the bewildered eighth grader. Common understandings, built during this initial experience with school, can then be used as a base to begin explanation of new material which the student must understand for intelligent decision-making.

The eighth grade student is a member of a group in which his role prescriptions have, for a number of years, been fairly well defined. He knows the behaviors that are demanded and those that are forbidden. If he were to enter the ninth grade as a member of a class where only a few changes had occurred, his problems would not be so complex. Instead, he faces forced membership in a large group formed by many feeder school groups who also hold sets of norms. Many of these norms are similar and are limited, but the variations may not be slight. (This is particularly true for the rural eighth grade student who is now an urban ninth grader.) In addition, he is faced with membership in a still larger group in which his group is at the bottom of a hierarchical arrangement. In short, he must learn a new role system. The way in which he learns these new role demands affects his personality and his adjustment to the new high school.

According to Hartley and Hartley, status system refers "... to the hierarchy of positions in a group while status refers to a point within the status system."⁹ The status referred to here is that determined by a particular attribute of the individual. The student finds, upon entering high school, that the group within which he held a certain position no longer exists. He finds himself in a new group in

⁹ Hartley, Ruth, and Hartley, Eugene, *Fundamentals of Social Psychology*, New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1952, p. 555.

which he must demonstrate his particular attributes by which he gained status in the original group. The situation is intensified since other freshmen are also attempting to gain certain points in the status system. In almost every situation, a particular student finds others aspiring to the same position. Some individuals find that by the addition to the group of others of superior mental ability, they can no longer achieve the high grades that they had maintained before. The athlete finds the competition keener and he finds that he is no longer the star. Some students may accept the challenge and redouble their efforts to maintain or improve their status. Others, who perceive the situation as a threat rather than a challenge, may withdraw and refuse to enter any of the activities. Many students face a period of insecurity and definite loss of prestige.

An effective orientation program must recognize the reorientation of roles and provide a variety of avenues for achievement as well as reasonable standards of judging achievement so that all new students will have some opportunities to demonstrate their competencies. The sooner this demonstration takes place, the more rapidly the student will become oriented to his new role. Encouragement may be necessary for many students unaccustomed to such intensified competition.

The new role system that the freshman must learn will include ways of behaving toward members of groups higher on the hierarchical scale. It includes new ways of behaving toward teachers, parents, and peers. It includes new ways of behaving in countless unfamiliar and ambiguous situations. The student can learn by selective imitation, and opportunities to observe others will facilitate mastery of his new age roles. The orientation program must then include a variety of opportunities to view and "study" role behaviors of the new group of which the eighth grader is soon to be a member. As Newcomb points out:

A good deal of evidence supports the general conclusion that the more sudden and drastic the change in role prescriptions—particularly if the change involves a good deal of unlearning of previous role behaviors—the greater the likelihood of marked change in personality.¹⁰

If this change is to be gradual, the elementary student should be encouraged to attend high school activities to observe the new role behaviors, but not with pressure to participate.

There are many high school activities which offer the alert elementary teacher an opportunity to supervise student observation of

¹⁰ Newcomb, *op. cit.*, p. 472.

the new role prescriptions. High schools must make it easy for their future students to observe and, in some cases, participate in activities sponsored by the school. The more these opportunities are utilized, the fewer ambiguous situations there will be for the student to face. If he has some basis for judging his new role, the student may find the change from elementary to high school more smooth and satisfying.

The student needs ample opportunity to interact with both his new peer group members and with members of upper classes. These groups become important socializing influences. The resulting social interaction, which makes possible simultaneous benefits for the two groups, can motivate the student to accept his new role prescriptions which the larger group demands.

One of the first orientation procedures usually has been that of the high school—e.g., rules of attendance, conduct on the playground and in the hall, rules of the library and assemblies—with the new freshman class. Some schools arrange for students to ask questions from small groups of upper classmen with teachers present or otherwise provide opportunities for the presentation of the ideal group norms to the new student. It is important for the teacher to understand that some of these ideal norms may or may not be the real norms of the high school student body. Ideal norms are made known in the formal lecture, movies, handbooks, and other similar methods; but the real norms, upon which so much of the new students' behavior will be based, can only be learned by the give and take which occurs during unsupervised social interaction. Wide gaps between ideal and real group norms may mean considerable conflict for many students. Thus, for an orientation program to be effective, opportunities must exist for the beginning freshman to learn both the ideal and the real group norms. Needless to say, norms which are learned in terms of the social needs and functional principles of the group will be more readily understood.

It is sometimes assumed that any member of the eighth grade (transition) group will be able to function adequately in a particular social situation which is arranged to introduce him to the new norms, and which is considered appropriate for his age group. However, this assumption does not take into consideration the basic principle of individual differences. For example, sometimes eighth graders are brought in to the new high schools from various feeder schools for social events which primarily include dancing. While many students are ready for this activity, others know that this situation may only demonstrate another incompetency. Some boys are still members of groups whose norms frown on any activity involving girls. If social

pressure is applied, the student may react against the activity and against the school. This makes it more and more difficult for him to share new norms. Thus, it becomes evident that a variety of activities must be presented in the school orientation program.

SUMMARY

The basic assumption of the authors is that much of the insecurity exhibited by the beginning freshman is the result of conflict produced by changing membership in groups. An effective orientation program designed to reduce conflict must be based upon the social-psychological principles involved in changing group membership and the effect of this change upon the individual. To the degree that this is true, we may expect a more or less smooth transition period for the new high school student.

Many of the activities and techniques that have evolved over a period of years have helped the neophyte to become a member of the student body. Some of the orientation programs have emphasized certain activities and neglected others. Some programs have developed as a matter of convenience. Any orientation program will need to be developed according to the peculiar condition of each community and high school population. There are certain basic procedures which *must* be followed if the above assumptions are accepted.

These must include:

1. An attempt to establish through teachers and parents a frame of reference in which high school is perceived as a step in the growing-up process which is worthy of recognition.
2. An attempt to ascertain prevailing frames of reference among the neophytes about the specifics of the new high school so that misconceptions may be corrected.
3. Opportunities for students to observe future roles.
4. Provisions for status giving activities for *all* the new students to demonstrate their competence.
5. Activities designed to assist the student in learning both real and ideal norms of the student body.

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AN EXPERIMENT IN TEACHING EMPATHY

Clinton R. Meek

To see if empathic ability of students in teacher training could be improved by direct efforts to teach empathy, a class of 36 students in Introductory Guidance was used as an experimental group and another section of 56 students in the same course was used as a control group. Both groups were given empathy tests before the unit of work was presented, and the same tests were repeated four weeks later when the unit of work on empathy was completed. The experimental group engaged in activities designed to develop empathic ability. The control group was handled in much the same way as the experimental group except that the class activities were designed primarily to develop understanding and ability in methods of guidance rather than empathic ability as in the experimental group.

INTRODUCTION OF THE CONCEPT OF EMPATHY TO THE CLASSES

During the class period preceding the pretests, information concerning the concept of empathy was given. In general, empathy was defined as the capacity to put oneself in the place of another person to understand his feelings, attitudes, and viewpoint. The significance of empathy in all interpersonal relations as well as special significance of empathy for teachers and counselors in working with students was discussed. The possibility of getting measures of empathic ability was considered, and the students of both classes expressed themselves as being in favor of taking an empathy test.

EMPATHY PRETESTS

The pretests consisted of ranking traits and responding to inventories in judging oneself and another person. The pretests followed 25 minutes of interviewing (each student interviewed his partner for approximately 12 minutes) in which students were paired on the basis of social preference. Roughly, constant social distance was maintained with pairing of from sixth to tenth choice. In this interview the students were instructed to interview each other as a teacher or counselor would in holding a brief interview with a student for the purpose of gaining understanding to be used in predicting how the other would respond in describing himself or herself and the interviewer. (Both classes had engaged in classroom activities and reading designed to improve their interviewing, during the previous six weeks.)

Following the interview each student ranked himself and the other person on (1) Dominance, (2) Sociability, (3) Self-acceptance, (4) Responsibility, (5) Tolerance, (6) Understanding others,

and (7) Femininity. Each student responded to an inventory, the Psychological-mindedness Scale of the *California Psychological Inventory*, regarding both himself and the other person. The seven traits on the ranking test were also scales on the CPI, except that "psychological-mindedness" was changed to "understanding others." On both the ranking test and the inventory test, scores were obtained by summing the discrepancies between a student's judgments of himself and the other person's judgment of him and the corresponding judgments regarding the other person.

CLASSROOM PROCEDURE

In general, the classroom procedures used in this attempt to improve empathic ability were practice tests, information imparting, small group discussions, interviews, panel discussion, and discussions by the entire class. Student were encouraged to criticize the tests, activities, and materials and to suggest new ideas, questions, and procedures. In brief, the breakdown of activities as to sessions were as follows.

First Session. In the beginning of this session, scores made on the pretests were reported and an effort was made to interpret the meaning of the scores; this was combined with a report on some of the other methods which have been used to measure empathy and some of the short-comings of these measurements. Students reacted freely in making criticisms and raising questions which, as a rule, were referred to the class for answers or comments, but, in some cases, the teacher also helped clarify these questions and criticisms. Information from reports of research was given when relevant. Information concerning the concept of empathy and its significance in the work of counselors and teachers as well as its usefulness in general social interaction was brought into the discussion of the results of the pretests. Special attention was given to opinions of students regarding the validity of this method of measuring empathy. At the end of this session a brief reaction report was written in which each student attempted to describe his method of trying to understand the other person and how effective he thought he was in understanding others.

Second Session. The results of reactions reports written at the end of the previous session were reported and discussed. Then the class was divided into groups of six students per group. These groups were to discuss materials, ideas, and opinions presented in the previous session, and the chairman (selected by the group) was to record the group's conclusion regarding (1) significance of empathy in relating to others and (2) main factors which were considered to be

important in the empathic process. Five minutes before the period ended, the students were instructed to rank each student in his small group according to how he thought his group would rank them as to their empathic ability. Scores of this ranking test were based on the discrepancies between each student's ranking and the mean group ranking.

Third Session. Scores made on the ranking members of the small groups in the previous session were reported and discussed. Students brought out many doubts concerning the accuracy of empathy measurement. These doubts were reflected to the class for comments and discussion. Next, a panel discussion in which the chairman of each of the groups of the previous session reported conclusions regarding the small group discussion of the significance of empathy in interpersonal relations and the important factors in empathy. At the end of the panel session, each student of the audience rated members of the panel on a six trait, nine point rating scale which was scored by comparison with each panel member's own self-ratings.

Fourth Session. The results of the empathy test of the previous period were reported and discussed. Following this discussion of the previous empathy test, information concerning the relationship of empathy with identification, projection, and internal frame of reference was given. Critical analysis of this material was made in what the experimenter considered to be a highly involved discussion.

Fifth Session. In the beginning of this session the teacher recalled many of the doubts which had been raised concerning the measure of empathy. He recognized that most of these doubts were justifiable and that even though the attempts to predict how the other person would react was difficult, one could probably do better than chance guessing if he were good at inferring from observed behavior. To start speculation and discussion the following example was used. If a person nearly always feels that he must have his lesson perfectly prepared before he goes to class, could it be inferred that this person would be likely in other situations to feel pressure to prepare to meet expectations? What is the possibility that such a person would try to find out what would be expected of him when he is to go to a social gathering, or if a job is assigned to him? Considerable disagreement and discussion followed. One or two other examples were suggested. The students were then paired to discuss possibilities of using inferences from statements and actions of another person to determine how that person might feel and act in a new situation. Following these two-person discussions, the students again used a six trait rating scale in ranking themselves and the other person. Each student's ratings were compared with his partner's ratings for an empathy score.

Sixth Session. After reporting and discussing the empathy test of the previous session, the use of empathy by the teacher in interviewing, observation, group discussion and other teaching and guidance methods was explored and discussed.

Posttest. The posttest was the same as the pretest except that all students were paired with a different student of about the same social distance as used on the pretest. The experimenter talked with several students later to see if they had expected any of the previous tests they had taken to be repeated. There was no evidence that students had talked about the traits and inventory used in this test. They said they had expected a rating test of some kind but had not tried to determine what traits would be included on the test.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The empathy scores on the first test and the final test were compared. The experimental group showed an improvement (t value of 3.456, significant at the .01 level) on the ranking test, but there was no change on the inventory test. The control group showed no significant change on either ranking or inventory empathy tests. These results seem to indicate that special effort to improve empathy through classroom procedures was effective for understanding how another person would respond regarding general judgment of another person but that this training was not effective enough to improve understanding of how another person would respond to specific items such as on the inventory. If this is so, it is possible that a longer or more effective training period might bring improvement in more specific situations.

A serious question is whether or not the improvement on the final test was a general improvement in empathic ability or merely an improvement in the specific test situation which was used. There is a possibility that the results of this demonstration may be due to test practice, but the tests used in the teaching procedures probably were sufficiently different from the ranking test to prevent any strong practice effect. These tests depended on making comparisons of persons instead of comparisons of traits within a person, and rating of traits, not ranking them as on the pretest and posttest.

In conclusion, if empathic ability can be improved through educational procedures, as this demonstration seems to indicate, better measurements and demonstrations are needed to indicate how we can teach empathy effectively.

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THE CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC: A MENTAL HEALTH SERVICE AGENCY AND AN AID TO TEACHER EDUCATION

Wellington A. Thalman

KNOWLEDGE VERSUS DOING

Volumes have been published and public platforms have held many speakers, but there has been a paucity of agencies to put into practice these understandings we now have in the fields of guidance, counseling, and mental health. Generalizations and broad concepts are important, but it is the specific case with its many aspects which constitutes a challenge to the mental hygienist and to the guidance workers who wish to make their learnings functional.

A DIFFERENT HISTORY FOR EACH PERSON

Each individual has a history all of his own and no two histories are alike. We differ not only in physical appearance but likewise in intelligence, achievement, personality, feelings and emotions, and in the long procession of numerous experiences, some of which are so traumatic that they become the underlying causes of mental illness.

Good mental hygiene implies happiness but that which serves as the pattern for happiness in one person could produce unhappiness in another. The introvert may be most happy in the laboratory while the extrovert may be happiest as he pushes his cart around the golf court.

To say that all persons must conform to a particular pattern would mean that we are ignoring some of the most basic principles of what is known in the study of mental health. The child of average intelligence who makes average grades in school may be very happy, but the child having high intelligence and makes only average grades could be very unhappy. One child in the home may require only a limited amount of affection from the parents but another child may need much more affection in order to be happy. It is not altogether easy for parents to detect this difference in needs so it becomes necessary for them to contact *some service agency* which will study all aspects of the child's life.

We see the child who is very aggressive and we also see the one who is shy and retiring; the child who is aggressive and the one who hates school and the one who runs away from home. It is not true that too often we concern ourselves only with the punishment of the child for the offenses he has committed and too seldom ask the question, "Why does he do these things?"

ADULTS SOMETIMES LEARN FROM TRAUMATIC EXPERIENCES

The writer recalls a severe shock he had during his first year of experience in teaching. He served as superintendent of a small school and soon discovered that learning sometimes resulted from a shocking experience as well as from the study of the printed page. With a heavy snow on the ground and a temperature of twenty degrees below zero, a small lad called at the office and said, "I am late and need a permit to get into class." The permit was issued and a notation included stating that he would remain thirty minutes after the close of the school day. As the lad started to leave the office, he looked to see what was written on the permit. He paused a moment, turned around, and then said to the superintendent, "Sir, would you like to know the reason why I was late?" Such a question had never entered the mind of the writer but slowly and finally he "gathered himself together" and said, "Yes, I would like to know why." The eight-year-old lad replied: "My mother is very ill with pneumonia and the doctor doesn't think she will live. My father died two years ago. I have a baby sister four years old and she was hungry and so I got her breakfast for her. I'm sorry I was late." The writer was put to shame and he lost no time in apologizing to the boy. Such an experience should be sufficient to cause anyone to always look for the causes as to why a human being performs as he does rather than to condemn him and to be so ready to administer some kind of punishment.

Only recently while holding an interview with a young man of twenty years of age, the writer discovered that this young man kept a gun under his pillow at night. He was in serious need of counseling rather than punishment and he needed someone who would listen to the story of his life.

In another case it was found that a fourteen-year-old lad slept with a butcher knife under his pillow. During the interview, it was learned that his mother had been married five times and divorced four times; that his stepfather had been very mean to him; and that he was now living with his grandparents who were interested in him but he felt that most people were against him.

Only recently while examining the report of the social history written by the mother of a ten-year-old lad, who was brought to the Child Guidance Clinic, the writer found this statement, "As for his not obeying or paying attention to his lessons at school, I feel that they are not strict enough, that if they would take his pants down and use a strong hand or paddle, hurting his dignity as well as his rear end, things would be easier for them." There are too many parents who think only in terms of punishment rather than in terms of

trying to find out why a child does not learn or why he is a behavior problem.

For many years, the writer has been convinced that too little interest has been shown in working with the young child. As a child becomes older, it is much more difficult and in some instances almost impossible to do something for him, particularly in regard to parent-child relationships. Clinics for adults are necessary but we have been so neglectful in establishing clinics for those of the younger ages.

THE ORIGIN OF THE CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC AT S. I. U.

The Child Guidance Clinic at Southern Illinois University, founded in April, 1936, was first established as a part of the program in "Teacher Education." The encouragement to set up such a clinic came through the interest and the aid of Mr. Roscoe Pulliam, who was then president of the college. His years of experience in the public schools made him aware of the great variety of problems of children of different ages and the need of teachers to learn how to handle these problems effectively. By problems, he meant not only those of a personality and behavioral type, but also those of an academic nature. He constantly emphasized the interrelationships between school success and personality involvements and pointed out the importance of differentiating symptoms from causes. He frequently suggested that it was not advice which was needed but understanding followed by carefully planned therapy and that the way by which children could be helped was by making a technical and complete study of the physical status, the intelligence, the achievement, the personality and the behavior patterns of the child or adolescent. He stressed the value of a full staffing of each case so that both parents, the teacher, and others associated with the case might be made aware of all the findings in order that they would all know what part each person could play in helping the child to grow.

Ever since the origin of the Clinic, the Director has had the cooperation of the physicians on and off the campus, and the departments of Health Education, Education, Guidance, Counseling, and Special Education, as well as of the University Training School.

COOPERATION WITH OTHER AGENCIES

The first clinic on this campus as conducted twenty-one years ago was in cooperation with the Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research. This was a five day clinic and in addition to the local staff, the Institute furnished a psychiatrist, a psychologist, and a psychiatric social worker.

For the first two or three years most of the cases were studied

during the time of the occasional clinics, but the demands from teachers and parents became so numerous that the administration of the college made provision for the local staff to be of service throughout eleven months of the year.

The Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research deserves much credit, not only for the fine technical aid which it gave, but also for the encouragement and the inspiration which it furnished during the years of pioneering on the part of the Child Guidance Clinic.

There is likewise a close relationship between the Clinic and other state agencies. On one hand, these agencies refer cases to the Clinic for study and in other instances we call upon them to aid us in the examining of certain types of cases.

There are also the physicians, nurses, social workers, teachers, school administrators, judges and state's attorneys who refer cases to the Clinic and who likewise frequently assist in the securing of important information. They are also helpful in the carrying out of the therapy as outlined for the particular case.

TYPES OF PROBLEMS STUDIED—A CHALLENGE TO THE MENTAL HYGIENIST

It may be said that the pattern of performance of any one child is always some different from the pattern of any other child. The factors producing a particular problem are also some different, both qualitatively and quantitatively, from those of every other case. It is the relationship of these factors and conditions to the native or unlearned characteristics of the individual which produces great differences. Thus, it would be almost impossible to enumerate all of the types of cases as studied by the Clinic. Many of the problems are of an academic nature and then there are the cases of truancy, stealing, vandalism, spastic paralysis, feeble-mindedness, enuresis, exhibitionism, extremely aggressive behavior, and children having sensory defects, temper tantrums, and the adolescents who need guidance in choosing a vocation and who need help in the understanding of their emotional problems. Many of these characteristics are found in the normal child as well as in the exceptional child. The Clinic functions within its own limitations and whenever necessary cases are referred to other agencies for further study.

THE TRAVELING CLINIC

Ten years ago, some of the public schools in Southern Illinois presented requests for having the staff come into their schools for the purpose of holding clinics there rather than for them to bring the children to the University. This has been done ever since, and most of these are one to three day clinics. It is a convenience to the teach-

ers and to the parents as well as a learning experience for them as each case is carefully diagnosed and then discussed with the school administrator, the teacher and the school nurse present. In addition to these services in the State of Illinois, the staff has conducted five, three, and two-day clinics at a Cerebral Palsy Treatment Center at Paducah, Kentucky.

CONSULTING SERVICES

In twenty years of time, the Clinic has built up a rather large clientele and many parents, teachers, and nurses consult with staff members regarding various problems of the child and adolescent. In recent years, directors of "Guidance and Counseling" in many public schools have made extensive use of the services of the Clinic.

SPECIAL COURSES ORGANIZED BY THE CLINIC

Although staff members of the Clinic have played an important part in the development of the number of Child Study Courses on the campus, it has been altogether responsible for such courses as "Symposium on Procedures in Individual Guidance," "Techniques in Individual Student Guidance," and "Advanced Guidance of the Individual Student." These courses enable students to become acquainted with the techniques such as the administration, scoring, and interpretation of intelligence, achievement, personality tests; the procedures used in the study of problems of behavior and maladjustment; the carrying on of home visitations by the student himself; the actual using of special techniques in corrective reading and in mathematics; and the objective experiences in the practical study of health problems, including the organic and emotional aspects. It is important though to keep in mind that at the same time this is a learning experience for pre-service and in-service teachers and that each child studied is given some of the needed therapy.

CLINIC OFFERS OPPORTUNITIES TO GRADUATE ASSISTANTS

Theory is important, but theory with practice is more important. This principle has always been observed by the Child Guidance Clinic and for fifteen years it has served as an agency which made possible direct experiences in doing case studies under supervision and has likewise offered opportunities for participation in staffings. Through the practicums and through the graduate assistantships, these experiences have come to be most practical and valuable, and the testimonies given by these students substantiate the above statement.

As previously suggested, the Clinic has always been closely allied with the program of "teacher education." Reference has been made

to several important series of seminars which were initiated by the Clinic and are offered in the Department of Guidance. These have been found to be helpful to parents as well as to teachers. The practicums and the graduate assistantships have likewise given many opportunities for child study.

PURPOSES OF THE CLINIC

Within the descriptive material as already presented, various functions of the Clinic have been indicated, but it might be well to state specifically several of the most significant objectives of this service agency.

The Clinic serves as an agency to which hundreds of children are being brought for study. At the same time, the parents, teachers, nurses and school administrators are given professional help in learning what to do in order that the child may come to realize for himself what adjustment must be made if he is to grow and to be accepted by his peers and others. That there is a great variety of types of cases studied, has already been mentioned and the normal child as well as the atypical is included. As a matter of interest, it should be said that 70% of the cases studied are males and 30% females; 42% of the cases have been referred to the Clinic by schools, 25% by the parents, and 33% by Child Welfare, physicians, health departments, and the courts.

Another purpose of the Clinic is to furnish consultative services to the University School, to in-service teachers, and administrators, to parents, to nurses, and public health officials, to State's attorneys and county judges, and to the personnel of various Child Welfare Agencies in Southern Illinois.

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

The Child Guidance Clinic has the support of the various administrative officers on the campus. Dr. D. W. Morris, President of Southern Illinois University, has on many occasions stated that he is desirous of having the University serve all of the people of all the communities in Southern Illinois. This University and its administration is doing this in many ways and the Child Guidance Clinic feels that its services is one of the ways by which it can help the administration accomplish what it has set out to achieve.

Dr. W. A. Thalman is Director of the Child Guidance Clinic at Southern Illinois University.

OUR SENIOR CITIZENS

Wm. Neal Phelps

The United States has traditionally been a nation of youth: our newspapers, magazines, movies, advertisements are all geared to this idea. The premise would be fine if youth were perpetual; however, it has been statistically proven that old age is the fatal end of long life. Fortunately for some, and unfortunately for many, we must all grow old; and it is not something that can be avoided. Today, it is apparent that the United States is no longer a youthful country, but one comprised of adults and aging adults. In 1900, only 4 percent of our population were 65 or over as compared with 8 percent in 1950. According to the 1954 census report, there are 13 million people whose ages range from over 65, and there are 33 million people whose ages range from 45 to 64. It has been estimated that by 1980, there will be 20 to 26 million people over 65 years of age. This is an estimated 15 percent of our total population in 1980.¹

Older people are seeking security against increasing helplessness. They seek gainful occupation or its equivalent in interesting and useful activity. They seek friends and pleasant home relationships. All these values are important for the physical and mental well-being of the older persons. Our various governments—Federal, state and local—are making provisions for these people by passing laws to benefit them. There is still much to be done, however, that can be accomplished only by sources with money and power at their command. The happiness of any person depends not only on food, shelter, and clothing; but also on companionship, self-expression, and the use of leisure time in a socially useful manner. Living with the children does not give assurance of companionship; and financial security is no guarantee of a full and rich life. Mental and physical health are so closely allied that the older person who is unhappy and feels himself unwanted and excluded from the group will often develop physical symptoms and show evidence of decline beyond that which is normal for his age level.²

With our compulsory retirement laws, many men and women reach retirement at an age of great productivity. They are highly qualified, experienced, and still able to carry on skilled, useful work. Such enforced idleness is harmful to the individual and a serious loss

¹Kaplan, Jerome, *A Social Program for Older People*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1953, p. 54.

²Gilbert, Jeanne G., *Understanding Old Age*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1952, p. 347.

to society. Several leaders of older people's recreational groups have listed six needs which older people have in common with all other people.³ These needs are:

1. The need for belonging
2. The need for self-expression, both productive and creative activity
3. The need for health, both physical and mental
4. The need for new interests and appreciations
5. The need for recognition
6. The need for participation in community life and the opportunity to contribute to society.

What can we do to help these older people satisfy these needs? Recreation in its broadest sense could be the answer. It has the possibility of playing a very large role in meeting any or all of these needs.

Recreation refers to any activity that is both creative and recreational and gives emotional satisfaction to the person involved.⁴ The need for such creative activity after the age of 60-65 is far greater than the available opportunities. Since people in their later years usually have a greater amount of leisure time for doing things for the joy of doing them adds importance to the role of recreation.

While medical science is making it easier to grow older, our way of life is making it more difficult to do it gracefully. Increasing age presents many problems that offer a challenge to the generation, the need to keep our older people active and useful members of the community. The public must be educated to the fact that problems of aging will not be successfully met through individual or family effort alone, but that responsibility falls upon the entire community. We must become aware of the economic and social needs of the aging adult and their relationships to his personal happiness and to his place and usefulness in the community. Some communities are accepting the challenge. They are conscious of the need to keep older people active and useful members of the community. They are providing the necessary leadership for creative group activity and guidance through the organizing of clubs for older people, which is one of the most effective means to the goal.

THE IMPORTANCE OF RECREATION FOR THE OLDER ADULT

Recreation is thought of as any leisure-time experience that is directly satisfying and enriching to the person engaged in it. Recrea-

³ Donahue, Wilman and Tibbitts, Clark, *Planning the Older Years*, Ann Arbor: University Press, 1950, pp. 98-99.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 97.

tion as a planned social life is a relatively new field when applied to the older person because most of the community recreation and group work are focused on youth. It is important for the older, as well as for persons of all other ages, to find new interests and new situations. Although as age increases there is usually a decreasing interest in social and physically active pursuits and an increasing preference for sedentary recreation of a more solitary nature, older persons need opportunities to participate actively in new situations. Julietta Arthur says, "Fortunately there are sound reasons why recreation will play a more significant role, not only for those who have abandoned the concept that complete recreation is the keystone to contentment, but in old age homes, in hospitals, and as a recognized part of the community welfare program. Medical science has definite proof that planned recreation to fit the individual, not merely a means of getting old people off the young people's hands, can be as potent a weapon to fight mental and physical deterioration as penicillin is at fighting pneumonia."⁵

States are becoming increasingly active in promoting recreation as a means of keeping their aging citizens out of mental hospitals. A full-time consultant on older age recreation groups has been working out of the Department of Social Security in the State of Washington for the past two years. His responsibility is to encourage the establishment of older age clubs under the sponsorship of local recreation departments of community service groups. The cost of medical care which the state was subsidizing for many of the older people was extremely high. There is ample evidence to indicate that some of the illness was psychosomatic due to the feelings of loneliness and rejection; and recreation programs for those age groups was to be a positive factor in reducing the need for medical care.⁶ Older people have as great a variety of tastes in the recreation which they indulge or would like to indulge.⁷ Providing the older person with suitable recreation outlets is not an easy matter. Before a group or recreation program is planned, there must be systematic research on the needs of older people in the community. Pollack says:

"First of all, the recreation needs of the aged should be investigated separately for men and women, and for groups with different occupational, educational, economic, and cultural back-

⁵ Arthur, Julietta K., *How to Help Older People*, New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1954, p. 377-378.

⁶ *Living in the Later Years*, Second Annual Southern Conference on Gerontology, Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1952, p. 142.

⁷ Roundtree, B. Seebahn, *Old People*, London: Oxford University Press, 1947, p. 77.

grounds. The types of recreation desired and the amount of time available for recreation should be ascertained by interviews or by questionnaire studies based on appropriate samples of the population in these various categories.

"With respect to kinds of recreation, emphasis should be placed on preferences for active or passive types of entertainment, types which do not require leaving the home and those which do, and forms of recreation which require group participation and those which can be enjoyed alone. As a refinement of such studies of recreational needs, the preferences of older people for specific forms of generally available types of recreation should be determined."⁸

Menniger classifies the types of recreational activity in accordance with the psychological needs that they meet: (1) Entertainment which caters to passive desires and provides for passive participation, (2) competitive games which provide a social outlet for otherwise unexpressed feelings of aggression, and (3) the opportunity to create or produce something which provides expression of erotic, constructive or creative drives and arrangement of outlets in each of these areas.⁹

Dr. Lillian J. Martin suggests the following objectives for a recreation program for older people:

1. It must be more than fun; the program should invigorate the whole personality.
2. It must meet the physiological needs and limits of the aging body.
3. It must satisfy the psychological need for continued expansion of the horizon of the individual at any age.
4. It must answer the need every person has to use all the energy he generates until the end of his life.
5. It must help every person feel useful and keep or build social relationships.¹⁰

ORGANIZING A COMMUNITY LEISURE-TIME CLUB FOR OLDER PEOPLE

The following plan of organizing the club tells of facilities, sponsorship, agencies, age limits, sex and race, time of meeting, volunteers, recruiting members, dues and club financing, and delegating responsibilities. Given a good leader and congenial members, the club will flourish with companionship and activities which tend to create

⁹ Gilbert, p. 361.

¹⁰ Arthur, p. 182.

feelings of adequacy, accomplishment, usefulness, belonging, and an increasing capacity to deal with problems.

Usually the need for space and adequate facilities can be met only by a church, settlement house, school, service organization club room, public recreation center, library, or some such facility. The location should be close to good transportation; it should be on the ground level or in a building with good elevator service. Auxiliary facilities and equipment should include a piano, folding tables, radio, television, a plentiful supply of magazines, a library, and one or more sewing machines. There are some agencies which by their very purposes are better suited than others to sponsor an aging citizen group activity. Agencies such as a neighborhood house or community center, recreation commission, schools, library, homes for the aged, and churches are "naturals" for sponsoring opportunities for the aging adult through group activity. The sponsor must keep in mind that the "foremost principle in planning and organizing a club for all ages is that we focus on the individual, his needs, his interests and possibilities. The person is the center of focus of the program, not the activity."¹¹

If the community is large enough to finance the hiring of a professional group worker, the possibilities of the club's being a success will be greatly enhanced. If, however, a part-time paid professional group worker or if voluntary workers from the community are to be used, the groups can still successfully serve their purpose. Club membership should be open to people in their sixties and even to those who are a little younger, but recruitment plans should be aimed at reaching people in the older age brackets. "Age of itself is not necessarily a bond; individuals identify themselves with others through common interests and needs. Complete compatibility of interests is not a necessary principle of group formation, but it is important that the varied interests are not wholly incompatible."¹²

Voluntary contributions is the most frequently used method of collecting dues. Since many members may be able to pay very little or nothing at all, it is best not to ask for money. In craft groups, articles made and sold could help finance the over-all club program.

Each member of the club should be encouraged to participate in some way so that the club becomes a group of "participaters," which tends to bring about a group cohesiveness and group morale.

¹¹ Wahlstrom, Catherine L., *Add Life to Their Years*, New York: National Council of the Churches of Christ, Department of Publication, 1953, p. 18.

¹² Kaplan, p. 58.

The following is a suggested outline for a club program:¹³

1. Free time for greetings introductions, and chatting
2. Music, business
3. Activity: one or two elements such as: games, discussions, writing and reading poetry, vocal and instrumental music, painting, ceramics, dancing, crafts, trips or excursions, movies, and lectures.
4. Refreshments
5. Announcements
6. Cleaning up

The initiative, capacity and resources of each member should be utilized to the utmost in the planning and carrying out of the club's activity program. Louise Brackenridge says, "We have learned how to lengthen life, but preservation of the quality of living has not yet received the attention which it merits. I believe this task is a duty given us which is impossible for us to ignore."¹⁴

DESIRABLE OUTCOMES OF A LEISURE-TIME CLUB

After a club has been in operation for a year, its effectiveness may be measured in terms of desirable outcomes. I believe the following would be desirable outcomes of a leisure-time club.

1. Does the group plan activity programs that include work, play, and creative activity?
2. Is a variety of social recreation included?
3. Are the activities based on the capacity and interests of the members?
4. Are the jobs assigned democratically?
5. Are opportunities for more service activities provided?
6. Do club members receive encouragement to develop creative potential through individual experience and special interest groups.
7. Is there an activity program for the shut-in?
8. Are members encouraged to participate more actively in community affairs?
9. Are the community resources used?
10. Is the club organized according to democratic principles?

¹³ *Ibid.*

¹⁴ Illinois Committee on Aging, *Useful Activity and Creative Living for our Older People*, paper read before the Thirty-ninth National Conference of Catholic Charities, St. Louis, Missouri: October 3, 1953, p. 4, mimeographed.

11. Is the activity program organized to meet basic psychological needs, not just to keep the members busy?
12. Are other people of the community invited to the club for various activities?
13. Are more ways being searched for to give the older people affection, encouragement, reassurance, and incentive for living?
14. Do all the workers have a basic liking for older people and are they aware of their capabilities and potentialities?
15. Are new ways being discovered to use the abilities of the club members?
16. Is there a study of the recreation facilities and equipment so as to get maximum use?
17. Is there exploration of ways of financing a more adequate and regular well-balanced program?
18. Does the club participate actively with other clubs?
19. Is there a constant evaluation made of the outcomes of the club?
20. Is group co-operation being developed?

CONCLUSION

It is now an established fact that older people who can make some return to the community for services they once received free, become less self-centered, and therefore happier. The skills of an older citizen quite often can be converted to effective use and to developing better social objectives. In the process of taking themselves out of a narrow circle of existence and putting themselves into closer proximity with others, they regain and enhance their own self-respect which is usually endangered when a person feels unwanted. Even at a very late age, their ability in helping mold the structure of the society in which they live is unlimited. Clubs and activity programs should be organized to promote opportunities for usefulness among older people. This is the challenge; and I hope to see in the very near future more and more communities, churches, social organizations, state, and Federal programs patterned after the needs of our aging citizens. Otherwise our own life will not be likely to fulfill the promise of the poet Browning, "Grow old along with me; the best is yet to be."

Wm. Neal Phelps is Professor of Guidance at Southern Illinois University.

BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN FROM BROKEN AND INTACT HOMES

Ivan L. Russell

Broken homes have frequently been credited with producing a disproportionate number of children with behavioral difficulties. Whether or not this charge is true, the problem has become more important with an overwhelming increase in the number of broken homes in our nation. Educators, sociologists, law enforcement officers and others have expressed alarm over the number of juvenile offenders coming from broken homes, but researchers have not adequately studied the problem in the present decade.

A thorough search of the literature relating to behavior problems of children coming from broken homes reveals that the few significant studies available were conducted in the first quarter of the present century. These studies were conducted without controls, and a cause and effect relationship implied without adequate control of the several variables which influence behavior. Despite the time lapse and lack of comparative data in their samples their findings are summarized and included.

One of the most significant studies was reported by Silverman¹ in 1935, involving 138 children under 18 years of age who were placed in foster homes. Their homes had been broken by ill health or death, mental factors, economic factors, social delinquency, and serious neglect or cruelty. Intelligence for the group was reported to be the same as for any unselected population. Only 25% of these children were found to have abnormal personality deviations or conduct difficulties. Conclusions from this study indicated no significant relationship between cause for the broken home and the behavior pattern observed in the child.

Fourteen studies summarized by Loutitt² indicate that approximately 50% of delinquents come from broken homes, and that the incidence of broken homes in the general population is approximately 25%. These reports point out that homes of delinquent children have been broken by death about twice as frequently as by divorce or separation.

¹ Baruch Silverman, "The Behavior of Children from Broken Homes," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* (Vol. 5, 1935), pp. 11-18.

² C. M. Louttit, *Clinical Psychology*, Harper and Bros., N. Y. 1947, pp. 413-414.

Information regarding the effect of the loss of one parent or the other is conflicting. U. S. Children's Bureau³ data indicate that only 7% of delinquent boys' mothers were dead, 12% of fathers were dead, and 2% had lost both parents. Kvaraceus⁴ data agree with these figures while Burt⁵ shows that children living with the father are more likely to be in the delinquent group.

Although studies which have been discussed above shed some light upon the relationship between broken homes and delinquent behavior, they do not present evidence which contrasts the kinds of problem behavior shown by children from broken and intact homes.

To study some of the questions stimulated by a review of the problem of behavior shown by children from broken homes a research plan was conducted by the writer. The major purpose of the investigation was to determine whether or not certain behavior characteristics were associated with children from broken homes. A second purpose was to explore the relationship between the kind of behavior observed in the child and the kind of home in which the child resided after the break occurred.

METHOD

This research plan included a study of 348 children. All of the subjects involved were children who had been examined at the Child Guidance Clinic, Southern Illinois University. They were residents of the area included in a radius of 100 miles. Examinations at the Clinic consisted of psychological tests and interviews, history of the problem, and a background of social information regarding the family.

A group of 174 children from broken homes was selected on the basis of completeness of information concerning each child. Another group of 174 children was selected according to a sampling procedure designed to produce a group of children exactly matched in chronological age, sex, race, and intelligence, but from intact homes. None of the children in the intact homes group came from homes known to have parental strife.

Each group was made up of children ranging in age from 5 through 15 with a mean age of 9.6 years. Intelligence quotients ranged from 50 to 142 with a mean of 95 and standard deviation of

³ U. S. Children's Bureau, *Juvenile Court Statistics and Federal Juvenile Offenders*, 1932.

⁴ William C. Kvaraceus, *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, Yonkers, World Book, 1945.

⁵ Cyril Burt, *The Young Delinquent*, New York, Appleton-Century, 1925.

17 points. A total of 112 cases in each group were boys, 62 were girls, and each group contained 45 Negro children. Information for the study was obtained by a careful evaluation of the case study material collected during the child's visits to the Clinic.

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Table I presents information regarding some of the behavior problems of children from broken and intact homes. Numbers of children from each group exhibiting the particular behavior are shown along with the percentage of the total group. These percents do not accumulate to 100% because the same child sometimes presented a number of behavior problems.

TABLE I
BEHAVIOR CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE CASES

Characteristic	Home Intact		Home Broken	
	n	%	n	%
Enuresis	17	10	14	8
Jealousy	15	9	22	13
Anger	20	11	17	10
Fears	9	5	10	6
Masturbation	15	9	21	12
Fighting	9	5	15	9
Stubbornness	16	9	18	10
Lying	4	2	20	11
Disobedience	17	10	25	14
Stealing	7	4	23	13
Academic retardation	102	59	108	62

Behaviors which were not observed frequently enough to be meaningful or significant have been omitted from discussion in this paper.

Although differences in percents occur in each of the behavior categories only two of these differences are significant beyond the 10% level of confidence. The difference of 9% observed in both "lying" and "stealing" is significant beyond the 1% level of confidence. This supports the suggestion made by others that delinquent behavior is more frequently found in children from broken homes. Other behaviors which are less frequently considered to be delinquent behaviors are not significantly different between the two groups.

Children making up the broken home group lived in five kinds of homes following the family break. Table II presents a breakdown of these homes along with the numbers and percents of occurrence

of each of the behaviors. A large portion of the group lived with mother only ($n=73$), and the remaining cases were scattered about equally among the other categories. Since the total number of cases in each category is different, percents and not numbers are important in interpretation. Because there is no statistical method for simultaneous analysis of the significance of differences in these percents it is necessary to make interpretations based upon simple inspection. These subjective interpretations must be viewed as quite tentative.

TABLE II

BEHAVIORS OF CHILDREN FROM BROKEN HOMES ACCORDING
TO FAMILY STRUCTURE AFTER THE BREAK

Behavior	n=18 Step- mother		n=33 Step- father		n=30 Foster Parents		n=20 Relatives		n=73 Mother only	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Enuresis	2	11	5	15	2	7	1	5	4	5
Jealousy	4	22	6	18	2	7	2	10	8	10
Anger	1	5	5	15	4	14	2	10	5	6
Fears	0	0	2	6	3	10	4	20	1	1
Masturbation	1	5	6	18	5	17	3	15	6	8
Fighting	2	11	2	6	2	7	3	15	6	8
Stubbornness	3	17	5	15	3	10	2	10	5	6
Lying	2	11	7	21	4	14	2	10	5	6
Disobedience	3	17	4	12	5	17	4	20	9	12
Stealing	4	22	7	21	3	10	2	10	7	10
Academic retardation	13	72	22	66	15	50	17	77	41	56

Summing up the percents in each column results in evidence that the highest proportion of problems among children from broken homes are found in those who have a step-father and those who have foster parents. Next highest in order are children living with relatives, with a step-mother, and with mother only.

Enuresis, jealousy, stubbornness, and stealing occur in greater proportion among children who have a step-parent. Anger, masturbation, and lying seem to be found more frequently among children who live with foster parents or who have a step-father. Fears are more frequently in children who live with relatives, and disobedience seems to be a problem more often in children who live with persons outside their own immediate family or who have a step-mother. A good psychological explanation is available for each of these findings, but it is not possible in the space available for this report to present them adequately.

Homes of subjects used in this study were broken by either death of a parent or divorce and separation. Table III presents a

summary of frequencies and percents of each of the behaviors for these two groups.

TABLE III
BEHAVIOR CHARACTERISTICS ACCORDING TO CAUSE OF
BROKEN HOME

Behavior	Death (N=61)		Divorce or Separation (N=113)	
	N	%	%	%
Enuresis	2	3	12	11
Jealousy	6	10	16	14
Anger	2	3	15	13
Fears	2	3	8	8
Masturbation	8	13	13	12
Fighting	3	5	12	10
Stubbornness	7	11	11	9
Lying	7	11	13	12
Disobedience	5	8	21	20
Stealing	7	11	16	15
Academic Retardation	44	72	64	58

Differences in percents appear in each category, but only four of them are significant. Enuresis occurs significantly more often in homes broken by divorce or separation ($P=.01$). Prolonged insecurity developed during the period preceding separation probably contributes to the problem of enuresis. Children from homes broken by divorce and separation also exhibit anger significantly more often than children whose homes were broken by death ($P=.01$). Disobedience is also a more frequent problem in homes broken by divorce or separation ($P=.02$). A fourth significant difference is noted in the matter of academic retardation. No apparent explanation is available for the fact that a significantly greater percentage of children from homes broken by death have academic problems ($P=.05$).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A study of behavior problems evidenced by children from broken and intact homes is presented. This study involved 174 children from broken homes and an equal group of children from intact homes matched on the basis of chronological age, sex, race, and intelligence quotient. Data are presented relating to differences between the two groups as well as differences within the group of children from broken homes.

The following tentative conclusions are drawn from these data:

1. Children from broken homes exhibit significantly more behavior problems than children from intact homes.

2. Lying and stealing are more frequently observed in children from broken homes.
3. There is a tendency for certain kinds of behavior to be associated with the kind of home in which the child resides after the break occurs.
4. Enuresis, extreme anger, and disobedience seem to be found more frequently in homes broken by divorce or separation than in homes broken by death.
5. There is a tendency for academic retardation to be found more often in children whose homes have been broken by death of one of the parents.

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TIME ALLOTMENTS IN GUIDANCE

Harvey F. Gardner

One of the questions that arises in the field of Guidance and Counseling is how much time should be allotted to each of the services falling under the heading of Guidance and Counseling. Possibly the reason we have no single answer to this query is because this question is inappropriate. Not only does the answer depend upon the number of guidance activities available to students in a particular high school, but it is a definite possibility that studies carried on during different times in the school year would demonstrate a fluctuation in the percentage of time devoted to each of the eight divisions of guidance as set forth in Table I. In the Fall of the year, for example, it is highly

Table I: AREAS OF GUIDANCE SURVEYED AND THE PER CENT OF TIME ALLOTTED EACH AREA DURING THE PERIOD
APRIL 23, 1956 TO MAY 18, 1956

<i>Area</i>	<i>Percent of Time</i>
1. Testing	26.00
Time spent in administration of tests	
Time spent in scoring and tabulating tests	
Time spent in analysis of test results	
2. Records	14.00
Time spent in record keeping	
Time spent in letter writing	
Time spent in filing	
3. Counseling	36.00
Individual (Students)	
Group (Students)	
Advisement	
4. Professional Contacts	18.00
Teachers	
Administrators	
Parents	
Others	
5. Follow-Up Study	1.00
6. Research (Excluding 5)	3.70
7. Community Speaking Engagements	1.30
8. Miscellaneous and Approximations	1.00

probable that the testing program would comprise a greater percentage of the total time devoted to guidance activities than any other of the eight divisions of guidance. A study carried on during the spring of the year might indicate that the greater percentage of the total guidance time was devoted to counseling, especially educational.

If such a study were carried on over an entire school year, the day-by-day and week-by-week periods of time would be merged into totals for the entire year and would thus give us a number of averages

which would have little value in giving an honest working answer to the question posed in the preceding paragraph. This idea is based upon the suggestion made in the previous paragraph that greater amounts of time are given over to specific guidance activities at different times during the school year. This author believes it would be better to break the year into parts and thus indicate what the guidance staff has been doing during these particular periods. The present study was set up on such a basis and it is believed that anyone familiar with the secondary schools' guidance programs during the last two months of the school year would not be too surprised at the results obtained.

This study was not intended to be an evaluation of any guidance programs of a specific area. It was instigated solely to determine how much time was devoted to specific aspects of the total guidance program.

Ten high schools in Southern Illinois were selected for this survey. The only requirements set up for the school's inclusion in the study were that the high schools have an organized guidance program and that all members of the faculty who were allotted time for guidance activities be agreeable to keeping a time check of their various guidance activities for a period of one month beginning April 23, 1956, and ending May 18, 1956. Certain definitions of terms used are necessary for a complete understanding of this survey. For example, an organized guidance program was defined as a guidance program which was directed by a trained individual who was responsible for its administration. To further qualify for inclusion in this study, the school's guidance director had to have completed a minimum amount of graduate study in guidance and counseling. The minimum amount of graduate study established as a criterion in this survey was arbitrarily set at twenty quarter hours or fourteen semester hours. The prime reason for this set amount of hours spent in graduate study was that it was the concerted opinion of individuals teaching in the field that after the completion of twenty quarter hours of study, an individual would have a fairly complete concept of what areas make up the total guidance and counseling program.

A record sheet was developed in which all guidance personnel could record quickly and easily a daily record of the time spent in each area of guidance for a particular day. The questionnaire form utilized in this study was a by-product of a previous unpublished study on the elevation of guidance programs in secondary schools which was made by the author in 1955. This previous study had indicated that the first seven major divisions of the guidance program embraced most of the guidance activities which occurred in our secondary schools. It is also important to point out that the divisions

used in the questionnaire certainly do not deviate in principle from what most of our authorities suggest should be included in the guidance activities in the secondary schools, but some deviation in terminology will be apparent.

The pre-indicated suggestion that the first seven major subdivisions embraced a major portion of the guidance activities was borne out in the present study in that the eighth division, "Miscellaneous" was used only once and in this instance it was utilized to indicate that two hours was devoted to an activity that could not properly be placed in one of the seven more specific sub-divisions.

Since this study was done with the help of professional people in the field of guidance and counseling, it was felt that few instructions were necessary. However, there were some areas which were so vague that further definition of terms was necessary in order that those individuals who were keeping the daily records would have the same orientation as the individual who would later make use of them. To such professional individuals it was believed that the sub-headings of Testing, Records, Follow-up Studies, Research, and Speaking Engagements needed no further clarification. It was suggested, however, that under Group Counseling, the areas of freshman orientation, boy-girl relationships, group vocational guidance, and group educational guidance be included, but that club sponsorship should not be considered as a guidance activity. Under the heading of Professional Contacts—teachers—the factors to be considered were in-service training, case studies and case conferences. It was further suggested that under the heading of Speaking Engagements, the individual should include time spent in preparation of speeches, although much of this was done "after hours" as were the speaking engagements themselves. As implied by the title, Professional Contacts, the time devoted to these various activities by guidance personnel was defined as time during which they were functioning as members of the guidance staff as opposed to time in which they functioned as teachers, administrators, coaches, etc.

During the specified period of time, the ten participating high schools reported that a total of 1089 hours were devoted to the guidance activities as outlined in Table I.

In the area of Testing, which included time spent in administration of tests, time spent in scoring and tabulating tests results and time spent in the analysis of test results, 282 hours or approximately 26 per cent of the total time was allocated to this area.

Under the heading of Records, which included time spent in record keeping, time spent in letter writing, and time spent in filing, a total of 153 hours and 40 minutes or approximately 14 per cent of

the total time spent in guidance activities was devoted to this sub-division.

The term "Counseling" included three sub-headings: Individual counseling with students, group counseling with students and advisement. Advisement was included here because the same individuals who were considered as members of the guidance staff were doing the advisement and also because advisement at this time of year was actually counseling in educational and vocational guidance. A total of 388 hours or 36 per cent of the total amount of time spent in guidance activities was devoted to these different aspects of counseling.

The heading of Professional Contacts covered contacts with teachers, administrators, parents and others. A total of 198 hours and 20 minutes, 18 per cent of the total time devoted to guidance activities, was utilized in these activities enumerated under the heading of Professional Contacts.

Follow-up Studies had been undertaken by only two of the high schools during this period and a total of 11 hours and 40 minutes or 1 per cent of the total time reported by the ten high schools was utilized in this area of guidance.

The research in progress in these high schools during this period of time comprised 40 hours and 30 minutes or 3.7 per cent of the total time used in guidance activities.

Group Speaking engagements with guidance and counseling as the major theme, contributed 1.3 per cent of the total time. As stated previously, this per cent of time included the time necessary for the preparation of the speeches. The remaining 1 per cent of the time which is missing from the above calculations is due primarily to approximating the percentages. The heading of Miscellaneous was used only once by one high school and this was a period of two hours which was less than .2 of one per cent of the total time. This amount of time was employed by one counselor for briefing-occupational information.

As was stated at the beginning of this article, the author's purpose was to ascertain how guidance personnel utilized their time during the period of time specified in the questionnaire and there was no intention of evaluating guidance services on this basis.

It would be interesting to duplicate this study at different times during the academic year in order to ascertain how guidance functions vary in certain periods in the year, i.e., Fall, Winter, and Spring.

The following table, Table I, shows the major areas and sub-areas used in this survey and also summarized the percentage of time allotted to each of these major divisions of Guidance and Counseling.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Salary Trends in Metropolitan School Study Council Schools 1937-1957, Orlando F. Furno. New York: Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957. i+12 pages. \$1.00.

The Status of the American Public-School Teacher, Research Division of the National Education Association. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1957. 63 pages. \$.50.

The Teacher's Role in American Society, Lindley J. Stlies (ed.) New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957. xxi+298 pages. (Fourteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society) \$4.00.

In recent years the American public schools have been confronted with an acute shortage of qualified teachers. Each of these publications explores some aspect of this problem.

Salary Trends in Metropolitan School Study Council Schools 1937-1957 sets forth the most obvious cause: in the period of prosperity since 1940 teachers lagged far behind other groups in sharing increases in the national income. In the New York metropolitan area most professional people enjoyed a substantial gain in real income. Salaries of professional school employees, however, barely paced the rising cost of living. In 1956 the average New Jersey school teacher earned less than an automobile worker, coal miner, or electrical worker. Communities that pay high salaries attract good teachers; those offering poor pay get few. This should surprise no one.

The Status of the American Public-School Teacher, which gives a composite portrait of the teacher on a national scale, confirms these findings. Based on a nation-wide sampling, it reveals that the average teacher's salary in 1956 was \$4,055. (Compare this with the \$4,900 currently paid factory workers in a typical major corporation.) Among the married men, few subsist on their teaching income alone—they supplement it with extra jobs as book salesmen, camp counselors, cab drivers, farmers, or sales clerks. Almost half are married to working women.

But low salaries do not entirely account for the teacher deficit. There is a new career pattern among entrants into the profession; many do not remain all their lives. Men often leave to enter military service or to seek better paying jobs. Women are likely to spend a considerable part of their post-college years in homemaking or child-rearing. A generation ago 70 per cent of all women teachers were unmarried. Today, however, the typical woman in teaching is no longer a Miss Bishop or a Miss Dove. The odds are two to one that she is married and she is likely to have children. In a word, women are no longer apt to weigh the advantages of teaching or marriage.

They now incline towards marriage *and* teaching. In increasingly large numbers they leave teaching and re-enter, or enter late in the first place, after several years of marriage. The trend towards interrupted or delayed careers further reduces the numbers of qualified people available to staff our schools.

These facts are implicit rather than explicit in the NEA's status survey, for the presentation is limited to data susceptible to quantitative measurement. *The Teacher's Role in American Society*, the latest Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, probes the problem in depth. Its contributors drew heavily on their backgrounds in educational sociology and the social psychology of education to analyze the social, civic, and education roles of the teacher in the light of changes in American society since 1900. None of the panel members believe teaching is an honored calling in the United States, and they present a wealth of evidence to support their views. This sorry situation is not merely a professional problem—it affects our very survival as a nation. When the news of Russia's earth satellite was first disclosed, distinguished commentators ascribed our defeat by Russian science to the fact that Soviet educators are better trained and have a higher social status than their American counterparts.

In the course of time the teacher shortage will be overcome, as the children born during the booming birth rates of the 1940's are graduated from college. The real problem will be to interest and hold well-trained and professionally-minded people. Neither the material returns nor the prestige of teaching offer prospects as alluring as those in competing professions. In the long run the kind of teachers the public gets is determined by the financial rewards and status society is willing to grant them.

FREDERICK SHAW

STATEMENT REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF AUGUST 24, 1912, AS AMENDED BY THE ACTS OF MARCH 3, 1933, AND JULY 2, 1946 (Title 39, United States Code, Section 233) SHOWING THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, AND CIRCULATION OF THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY published Monthly (Sept.-May) at New York for October 1, 1957.

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DAN W. DODSON, Editor

Sworn to and subscribed before me this
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